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ABSTRACT
         The product of the Task Force on Community
Development, Curriculum and Training Needs, the report focuses on
community development as an emerging field of knowledge and is
intended to serve as a guide for self-study, orientation, inservice,
undergraduate, and graduate training for community development
professionals. Topics treated include: the community development
professional (competencies, roles, and methods); community
development as a field of knowledge; alternatives for providing
community development education and training; and task force
recommendations for program improvement. The final section discusses
concepts central to the community development process: learning
behavior, the social system and social change, geographic concepts,
political functions, economic principles, and property rights.
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CONCEPTS
CURRICULUM
TRAINING NEEDS

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**A TASK FORCE REPORT TO THE
EXTENSION COMMITTEE ON
ORGANIZATION AND POLICY,
NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF STATE
UNIVERSITIES AND LAND-GRANT
COLLEGES**

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COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT CONCEPTS, CURRICULUM TRAINING NEEDS.

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PREFACE

In 1965, the Extension Committee on Organization and Policy of the National Association of State Universities and Land-Grant Colleges asked its subcommittee on Community Resource Development and Public Affairs "to develop a comprehensive report on the scope of community resource development and the role of the Extension Service in it."

The subcommittee appointed a Task Force of Cooperative Extension personnel to carry out this charge. The Task Force report, "ECOP Report: Community Resource Development," was published in 1967 and distributed to all State Cooperative Extension Services. The Report provided a description of the scope and content of Extension community resource development work and made recommendations for strengthening this area of Extension education.

One recommendation of the Task Force was the establishment of a study committee to identify the basic concepts from the various disciplines which comprise the applied field of community development. The Task Force also recommended that the study committee be charged with the responsibility of identifying curriculum and training needs for preparing professional community development workers. The committee was appointed in 1967 as a Task Force of the ECOP Subcommittee on Community Resource Development and Public Affairs.

This report is the result of work on the part of the Task Force on Community Development Curriculum and Training Needs. Recognizing community development as an emerging applied field of knowledge, the Task Force has dropped the word *resource* from its report. This is in keeping with the growing number of schools offering graduate degrees in community development.

In many instances, this publication will refer to the community development professional in the masculine gender (he, his). However, this is a generic appellation. Community development professionals can be, and are, women as well as men.

The Task Force hopes this report will help resident instruction, extension, and research workers conceptualize the body of knowledge necessary if community development professionals are to be most effective. This report should serve as a guide for self-study, orientation, inservice, undergraduate and graduate training.

Washington, D. C.
February, 1975

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Chapter I:
The Community
Development
Professional
—Competencies
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 Methods—

Developing people's abilities to create the kind of community in which they wish to live and work is the objective of community development education. The professional's aim is to help citizens find the ways and means to improve their social and economic well-being and quality of living. He provides assistance that will help them make decisions and take actions which will lead to the achievement of their goals.

Communities' needs and demands for people trained in community development are growing rapidly. As society becomes more complex, sound community decision making becomes more difficult and requires professional assistance to augment public and private efforts. The consequences of various courses of action are becoming more intricately intertwined and far reaching. Because of the complexities of modern society, it is becoming increasingly difficult to obtain adequate information and to maintain effective decision-making structures. The desire for decentralization of decision making—that is, letting local people decide their future—augments the demand for professional community development workers.

The need for trained community development professionals is especially great in the nonmetropolitan areas. Rural communities, which account for more than 90 percent of all land in the United States and a third of the people, are at a distinct disadvantage in coping with the increasingly complex problems confronting them and in capitalizing on potential opportunities. Most do not employ officials who can devote full time to the growth and development of their community. Most do not have the technical expertise to obtain State and Federal assistance, as evidenced by the disproportionately small share of Federal program dollars which go to rural America. And, most have only limited comprehensive planning programs.

On the other hand, community development professionals have demonstrated that they can provide the assistance to stimulate communities to adjust to changing forces in order to provide improved job opportunities, services and facilities, and—when the cost of a needed development is beyond the means of the community—to assist it in obtaining State and Federal assistance. The community development professional assists the community by serving as a catalyst in stimulating the desire to improve, as a teacher in applying the community development process, and as a re-

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source person in helping the community avail itself of needed technical, financial, or legal resources.

The primary objective of the community development professional is to help the community more clearly define and achieve its goals. This is done by working directly with citizens and public officials on their concerns. It starts by developing a climate whereby they can interact and deal effectively with even the most controversial issues. The process includes the identification of community opportunities and problems, establishment of goals and priorities, fact collection and analysis, study of alternatives, selection of an agreed-upon course of action, and implementation of this action.

The demand for professionally trained community development workers is expanding rapidly. Typical positions include:

1. Extension community development agents or specialists who serve city, county or multi-county areas.

2. Community development specialists in social service agencies.

3. University faculty who specialize in community development resident instruction, research, and/or extension.

4. Resource Conservation and Development project coordinators.

5. Specialists in city, county, district, and State planning and development offices.

6. Community development specialists affiliated with religious organizations or community development corporations.

7. Public utility development specialists.

8. Community development specialists with city departments of community development.

9. Community development specialists with business and industry.

10. Community development specialists with State and Federal agencies such as the Farmers Home Administration, Soil Conservation Service, and Forest Service, and such Departments as Housing and Urban Development, Health, Education and Welfare, Commerce, and Labor.

11. International community development work with such agencies as AID, Ford Foundation, Rockefeller Foundation, religious or humanitarian groups.

These are some of the positions open for the professionally trained community development worker. The demand for workers with professional training in community development will most certainly continue to expand. Curriculums need to be developed and programs offered to meet this demand. Workshops and seminars can help meet the immediate needs, but for the long run, special training programs and undergraduate and graduate service courses and degree programs are essential.

It is the purpose of this publication to delineate the training needed to prepare community development professionals for their jobs and to consider ways of providing this training.

Roles

The community development professional performs many tasks in his efforts to help the community identify and achieve its goals. In general, these relate to helping the people of the community learn how to work together, how to organize their efforts, and to put their concerns into a decision-making framework. This means helping them participate and become more effective in the democratic processes relating to the development of their community. It means helping the local citizens apply the community development process to solve their problems and realize their goals. The community development professional suggests and helps develop new arrangements or institutions, where needed, for achieving community goals. He helps the community consider the costs and the benefits of each alternative solution to a problem and to analyze where the benefits will fall and who will pay the costs. The community development professional also helps the community avail itself of private and public resources as needed.

More specifically for Extension, the *county and area staff* live in the community and work directly with the local people. As such, they serve as *educators, organizers, motivators* and *facilitators*. They help create awareness of issues by assisting clientele groups to understand existing conditions and the possible need for change. The county and area workers regularly organize and convene meetings in

order that the local people can get together to learn of their present situation and to decide what they would like the future to be.

County and area staff provide factual information based on personal experience and primary and secondary data and can call on State specialists and other authorities for additional information and understanding. Problem definition is the usual outgrowth of these activities, and the problems defined are often quite different from the problems visualized at the beginning of the effort. This is caused by the tendency for people to first identify symptoms.

Another task of the county and area worker is that of providing linkages to consultants and other outside resources who will help the community formulate its alternatives. These consultants may be Extension personnel, governmental agency personnel, university faculty, or other individuals with expertise relevant to the problems and opportunities for the community.

As is evident, the county and area workers are the most important members of Extension's community development team. Among their many roles, they occupy the very important roles of creating awareness of situations, stimulating action, educating the general public, and expediting and facilitating the use of human, financial, and physical resources. They help the citizens to be better able to make community decisions, but they do not attempt to make the decisions for them nor to promote their own favored solutions to the problem.

The primary task of the *community development specialist* on the State Extension staff is that of developing a milieu for effective community development education. As an educator, his chief responsibility is to provide training and program support for county and area personnel. As a facilitator, he helps develop access to other resources—university, public and private—needed by field staff and communities.

In this role, the State specialist is expected to plan and develop educational programs which include the training of area and county personnel as well as the education of community leaders and the general public. In his area of subject matter competence, the State specialist analyzes and interprets data and writes publications. He develops visuals and other materials which can be used in issue identification and in the delineation of problems and alternatives. The State specialist also serves as a resource person in workshops and seminars with local citizens and provides linkages to expertise in the university and in other agencies and organizations. As is true of area and county personnel, the State specialist remains objective and does not promote personal preferences. This role is to provide assistance so that the citizens of the community will be better able to make decisions for themselves.

A 1968 study by the Extension Service[1] lists 18 tasks reported by 229 Extension community development workers from throughout the United States. The respondents also judged their own competency in performing each task. The tasks performed and competence indicated by these 229 workers were as follows:

Task Performed	Percent Expressing Competence
1. Consult with organizational leaders to service their needs	89
2. Help leaders understand concept of community development	86
3. Teach leaders and citizens in face-to-face groups	82
4. Establish communications among development groups	79
5. Locate needed resources	78
6. Organize development groups	76
7. Design educational programs	72
8. Lead discussions on public issues	70
9. Involve citizens in determining goals and priorities	69
10. Guide resource inventories and analyses	67
11. Interpret relevant research	65
12. Design and map plans for projects	59
13. Promote projects and plans	59
14. Involved in applied research	55
15. Prepare written materials on controversial issues	54
16. Organize and conduct educational tours	42
17. Prepare applications for financial and technical assistance	40
18. Participate in educational TV programs	34

Methods

Numerous methods are used by the community development professional as alluded to above. Following are 10 methods used by professional community development practitioners as delineated by Littrell:[2]

1. Direct interaction with individuals and groups. The professional worker must be aware of himself in relation to the various groups and individuals with whom he works. The more he becomes like the group in attitude, beliefs, and outlook, the less effective he tends to become. The community development professional does not make decisions for groups. No group, individual, or interest is denied access to the community development process. Workers should try to assure that all points of view are brought into open discussion.

2. Community self-surveys. A survey can be of great benefit, however, one needs to understand why a community self-survey is used, what contributions it can make, and what its limitations are. One of the strongest recommendations is that it allows and encourages people to think about the area.

3. Community self-studies. These studies grow out of people expressing several different concerns. In developing a community self-study, it is important to build in the implementation as a continuous process rather than as a separate phase. Development of data by citizens means that much of the myth and folklore is brought into question. The study has the potential of providing a group of people with a much sounder base upon which to make decisions.

4. Group discussion and decision-making workshops. Decision-making workshops can be a forum through which diverse elements of the community may interact, although it may be necessary to search for a common area of agreement or concern. The workshop atmosphere permits and encourages frankness. Issues can be discussed and dealt with in such a manner that when a decision is made, it is based on both increased understanding and information.

5. Use of resource people. Community development professionals do not, in most cases, have technical answers to specific community problems. The local people may or may not know the solutions or they may not be satisfied with the answers they have devised or always used. In this situation, the community development professional can introduce resource persons to assist in finding new or different solutions. In introducing resource persons in the decision-making process the community development professional must keep in mind the real need for the technical information and the timeliness of the resource person's input to the problem.

6. Use of resources other than people. The community development professional has a role in making people aware that certain programs are available. One difficult problem in dealing with various programs is that they tend to be governed by inflexible rules, guidelines, eligibility regulations and are usually designed to deal with only a small segment of the community. The professional community development worker may help people discover ways of fitting various programs into the community goal-attainment process. And then the community may decide what they want, their needs, and thus develop their programs in a logical manner.

7. Presentation of data and information. The community development professional provides data and information to groups for and against various issues and makes presentations so that the quality of group decisions will be enhanced. The data must be inserted into the ongoing process so as not to impair the process of search and discovery. The form and timing are of concern. The community development professional not only supplies information about sources of data but teaches how to handle data and develop them into usable forms.

8. Creation of organization. The organization formed should grow out of the function it is going to serve after the problem is identified. Functional problems are not necessarily solved by organizational solutions. Because a type of organization has worked in one area does not mean that it is a valid organization elsewhere. It is important to realize that there are different types of organizations.

9. Group participation and group selection. The community development professional's obligation is to relate to communities in such a manner that the activity of decision making

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[1]Cummings, Gordon, "Community Resource Development—How Extension and Others Perceive the Job," ES, USDA, July 1970, ESC-568.

[2]Littrell, Donald W., "The Theory and Practice of Community Development, A Guide for Practitioners," Extension Division, University of Missouri, Columbia.

becomes an open forum. If community development is interested in the development of people so that they may become increasingly more competent to deal with their environment effectively, then the groups with which it is involved must be formed by self-selection. When participation is based on interest rather than duty or obligation, the quality of participation may be greater.

10. Methods combination. The community development professional will use the method which seems most suitable at the time and for the particular situation. Many different methods and approaches and combinations will be utilized to complete the job.

The Extension Community Development Professional:

1. Is a consultant to the community in its efforts to bring about desired change.

2. Is a resource person to steering committees, study groups, local government officials, and individuals or organizations that assume responsibility for various phases of community development.

3. Makes no decisions for people, but strives to help them make the best decisions from the options available to them.

4. Teaches methods of organization for the work to be done.

5. Helps with survey design.

6. Helps provide needed facts and assists in their interpretation.

7. Like the practitioner of general medicine, helps the community find and use assistance from outside specialists when needed.

8. Helps the community to become aware of and use a wide range of professional, technical, governmental, and private resources.

The Extension community development professional encourages initiative and independence so that community development work can be continued in his absence.

A professional makes no decisions for people, but strives to help them make the best decisions from the options available.

Chapter II: Community Development
—As a Field of Knowledge—

In recommending that professional workers be prepared for community development work, the Task Force is convinced that certain knowledge, skills and attitudes are more useful than others. The determination of what content should be taught in preparing community development professionals becomes a central question in this report.

Community development is viewed by the Task Force as an emerging field of knowledge, practice and inquiry. As such, the content of the field is drawn from economics, sociology, psychology, political science, philosophy, education, and other disciplines as well as applied fields of knowledge. A synthesized body of theory, principles and concepts is emerging as evidenced by degree programs at the undergraduate and graduate level in community development.

Concepts provide a practical way for delineating the parts of any discipline. The Task Force has used concepts as the starting point in determining the content needed by community development professionals. These concepts and their related theories, principles and facts from the appropriate disciplines and fields of knowledge constitute the primary content for a community development curriculum.

Concepts: Nature and Properties

Concepts may be defined as notions or our perceptions of reality whose meanings have become established and validated and have

been assigned names. They exist in our minds since they result from perceptions gained from our sense organs. Concepts of cold, green, sour and loud evolved from different sensory inputs. Some concepts have a physical form, such as house. All have a mental form (the idea or meaning) and a verbal form (the words used to express the idea).

Concepts are open-ended. This suggests that we never attain complete understanding of concepts because new principles and facts are learned through research and practical experience. The utility of concepts has a greater permanency than the utility of "facts" because the basic method of organizing ideas does not change; facts are constantly being discovered. In addition, concepts vary in their levels of generality. The idea of "community development" is very general, whereas "legitimation" is a more specific concept. Very general concepts can be understood in terms of ideas that are more specific in nature; these are called sub-concepts or elements.

Some uses of concepts have been cited as a means for delineating a field of knowledge in terms of its "parts," as organizing elements of a curriculum and as the substantive content of education objectives.

Concepts may also be used:

1. As ways of thinking about (analyzing and describing) real life situations;

2. For organizing and structuring observations of reality, facts and knowledge;

3. For communicating with others;

4. As a basis for predicting and testing relationships;

5. As a means for becoming acquainted with a field of knowledge;

6. As elements in developing theory.

Application of Concepts To Community Development

Community development workers must be prepared to think about and make application of concepts to the field of community development. Studies of human learning suggest that the learner can deal with a limited number of abstract ideas. Thus, the Task Force recommends that the learner's attention be focused on, but not necessarily restricted to, a selected number of essential concepts in community development.

Tyler[1] notes that physicists have determined that a basic understanding of their field rests on some 32 concepts. Likewise, the Task Force members have worked at identifying the critical concepts of community development. These are delineated here and discussed in the Appendix. The Task Force recognizes that the list is not necessarily complete and that new concepts and sub-concepts will emerge. These should be added to the central group of concepts as they are identified and their usefulness to community development personnel is demonstrated.

Concepts Central To Community Development

The Task Force has identified the following concepts as central to community development:

COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT AS A CONCEPT

1. Community
2. Development
3. Community Development Process

[1] Tyler. Ralph. *Basic Principles of Curriculum and Instruction.* Chicago, The University of Chicago Press, 1950.

LEARNING CONCEPTS

4. Behavioral Change
5. Teachable Moment
6. Diffusion and Adoption
7. Problem Solving

SOCIOLOGICAL CONCEPTS

8. Social System
9. Social Interaction
10. Communication
11. Organizational Boundary Maintenance
12. Decision Making
13. Socialization
14. Social Control
15. Social Change
16. Social Movement

GEOGRAPHIC CONCEPTS

17. Region
18. Central Place
19. Functional Area

POLITICAL CONCEPTS

20. Political Culture
21. Political System Functions
22. Demand Inputs
23. Support Inputs

ECONOMIC CONCEPTS

24. Marginal Analysis
25. Opportunity Cost
26. Economies of Size
27. Inter-Industry and Input-Output Analysis
28. Multiplier Analysis
29. Interregional Competition
30. Benefit-Cost Analysis

FEASIBILITY CONCEPTS

31. Feasibility

PROPERTY RIGHTS CONCEPTS

32. Property Rights

These are the essential concepts which comprise the body of knowledge constituting the emerging field of community development. The meaning and the importance of each of the concepts are discussed in the Appendix and references listed.

Chapter III: Guidelines
—For Developing Learning Experiences—

This report has utilized the conceptual approach as a means of building a curriculum and developing learning experiences. It is assumed that these concepts, theories and principles can be used in planning training experiences for Extension staff in community development work. To develop these training experiences it is helpful to follow these basic steps:

1. Identify basic roles of the staff in community development, i.e., analyst, advisor, advocator and innovator.

2. Identify the concepts which will provide the knowledge, attitudes and skills necessary to perform the roles.

3. Organize these concepts and principles in a manner which yields useful learning experiences

The major steps in building a curriculum are:

1. Identify the educational objectives.

2. Select learning experiences necessary to reach the objectives.

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3. Organize learning experiences in a meaningful manner.

4. Evaluate the outcomes.

Sources of Educational Objectives

Clearly defined educational purposes are necessary for outlining the content of a curriculum, for developing instructional procedures, for assessing student growth and for making continued improvements in a program. It is necessary to state the specific educational objectives as related to the Extension work environment as well as the disciplines. Tyler has suggested that educational objectives are derived from three principal sources: the learner, contemporary society, and the disciplines of knowledge.

The interests and needs of learners are important sources of information for determining objectives. These aspects of community development which interest the learner and in which he is deeply involved may provide points of departure for effective instruction. Interests imply that the student already possesses motivation to improve himself. Needs, or the differences between the present and the desired competencies of the learner, provide other useful data. Studies of needs will involve determining what "ought to be," the desired competencies of the student, finding the present status of the student, and identifying the gaps between the two conditions. Needs become an important source for determining objectives since needs constitute serious gaps in the educational development of the student that are not being met elsewhere.

Contemporary society as a source provides data about the job expectations of the community development worker and about societal concerns. The job analysis method provides a means for identifying the critical activities performed by community development personnel. The relevance of complex and continually changing societal concerns provides a justification for examining the concerns of contemporary society.

The subject-matter disciplines provide other data useful in determining objectives. Concepts, theories, principles, and facts become useful to the professional for analyzing and dealing with problems and situations that arise. Knowledge of a discipline enables a profes-

sional person to go beyond what his predecessors have done and to deal more creatively with new situations.

A comprehensive study of the three sources would provide more objectives than should be attempted in any curriculum. Tyler suggests a philsophical and a psychological screen for selecting the most important objectives to be attained. Objectives need to be consistent with the values of the organization. In addition, the proposed objectives should be feasible, ed-u̶̶̶̶̶̶̶̶̶̶attainable, appropriate for the consistent with learning theory.

Selecting Learning Experiences

When the purposes or educational objectives have been determined, the next task is to consider how these behavioral changes can be attained. Tyler uses the concept of "learning experience" to remind the curriculum designer that:

1. Learning takes place through the experiences which the learner has, not what the teacher does;

2. "Experiences" refer to the kinds of interaction (e.g., listening, seeing, feeling, tasting, smelling) the learner has with his environment;

3. The role of the teacher is to provide a situation to stimulate the desired behavior in a learner.

The task of selecting learning experiences involves determining which of many learning experiences can most likely produce the desired learning, and arranging the situations which will evoke the desired behavior on the part of the student. The following general principles have been proposed for selecting learning experiences:

1. The student must be given an opportunity to practice the desired behavior.

2. The student must be given the opportunity to deal with the kind of content implied by the objective.

3. The student should obtain satisfaction from the new behavior.

4. The desired behavioral change is within the range of possibility for the student.

Organizing Learning Experiences

The curriculum planner must organize a series of learning experiences to produce a cumulative effect for learners. Tyler identifies three elements to be organized and three criteria for effective organization. Concepts, values, skills are three kinds of common elements that serve as organizing threads in a curriculum. Survey courses provide an opportunity for introducing concepts, values or skills while subsequent learning experiences enable a learner to acquire broader and deeper understandings, abilities or feelings.

The criteria for building an effective, organized group of learning experiences are: continuity, sequence, and integration. *Continuity* involves the treatment over time of a concept, skill or value, e.g., the concept of feasibility would be dealt with again and again until it was understood. *Sequence* emphasizes higher levels of treatment of an element rather than duplication with successive learning experiences. Sequence would be achieved when a learner goes from acquiring enough understanding of a concept so as to provide a definition in his own words to using the concept in analyzing real life situations and posing hypothetical relationships to other concepts. *Integration* involves acquiring relationships within and among elements of the curriculum. Integration would result in the learner's perceiving relationships between sociological and economic concepts and between economic values and educational concepts.

Evaluation

Assessment of the progress made toward attaining the educational goals is also an important operation in curriculum development. If change in behavior is to be determined, an educational evaluation is necessary to appraise the behavior of learners at an early part of the program and at some later point. The notions of sampling, evidence, and judgment are also involved in evaluative efforts.

Steps in building a curriculum: Identify educational objectives, select learning experiences necessary to reach them, organize these in a meaningful manner, and evaluate the outcomes.

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Chapter IV:
Alternatives
—For Providing
Community Development
Education and Training—

ALTERNATIVES:
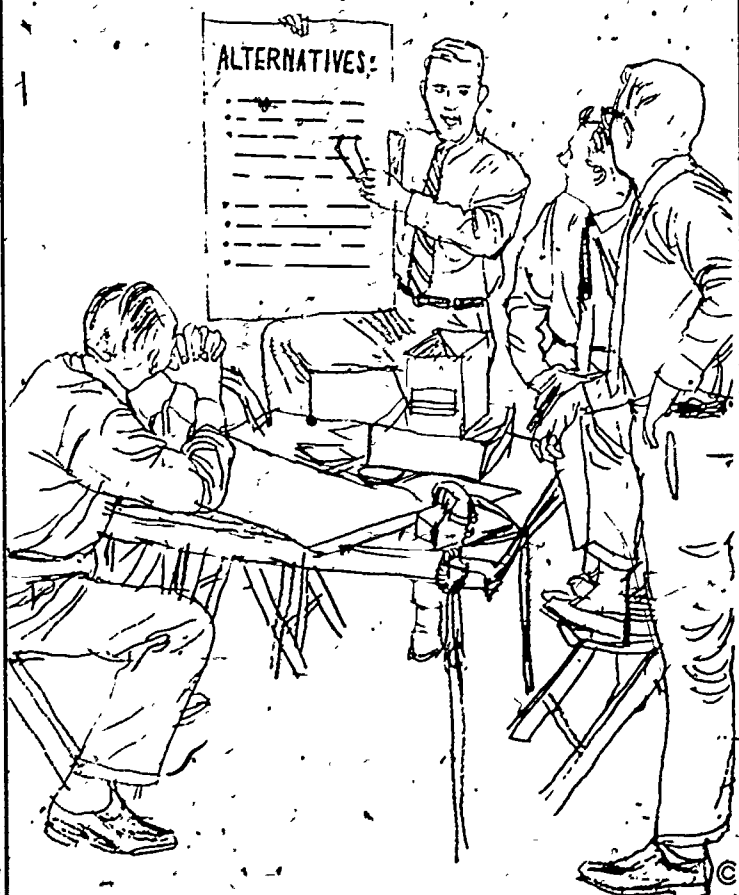
Students and individuals working in the field of community development should have access to planned learning experiences built around the concepts discussed in the previous section of this report. Some of these experiences can be incorporated into the university's ongoing academic program. Others will need to be created to meet specific needs through such techniques as internships, orientation training and in-service training.

Formal Education

Students at both the undergraduate and graduate levels should have access through formal courses to most of the community development concepts. Several universities throughout the nation should offer a core of concepts leading to a major in community development; most should offer courses built around these concepts to supplement other educational programs.

Training students to be good citizens and community leaders is one of the roles of the university. Each student, regardless of department, school or college, should have an opportunity to take courses offering concepts appropriate to leadership development and the development of the community. Selected concepts might be required of all students within the university or of all students within certain departments or with certain majors; the other students should have an opportunity to study these concepts as electives. Hopefully, prerequisites to these courses would not prohibit most from taking these courses and gaining access to the concepts. Also, hopefully, the concepts could be concentrated into a few courses which would include most of the important community development concepts. In this way, it would be possible for students to gain a general understanding of many concepts by taking only a few courses. Advanced courses focusing on a single concept or two would be necessary to provide in-depth understanding for those wanting to specialize in an area or major in community development.

The fact that the concepts relative to community development come from various disciplines raises two questions. Which departments, schools or colleges within the university should offer undergraduate and graduate degrees or fields of specialization in community development? And, how should the program be structured?

The structural arrangement for teaching concepts and offering majors or fields of speciali-

zation in community development will have to be resolved for each university by that university. However, criteria to consider when developing a framework should include:

1. Opportunity for interdisciplinary co-operation;

2. Opportunity to hire, locate and reward faculty with the qualifications you want;

3. Opportunity for program visibility;

4. Flexibility to adjust to the changing needs of the program;

5. Opportunity for faculty members to do research and involve students in actual case studies and field experiences;

6. The ability to develop applied as well as theoretical courses.

The following are some of the major alternative structures for delivering education and training programs in community development. Programs could be developed:

1. Within an existing major as a field of study with the existing course requirements of that major;

2. Within an existing major as a field of study with a new set of course requirements;

3. Within an existing department or school as a new major with new course requirements;

4. Within a new department, center, school or college as a degree program.

To offer the concepts relevant to community development as a *field of study within an existing major,* with all of the existing requirements of that major, provides the training with minimal institutional change and could be initiated rather quickly in most interested departments. However, if all of the required courses of the major are to be taken, there is only limited opportunity for learning the community development concepts which are not taught within the department unless several courses are taken beyond the minimum requirements of the degree. In the case of a doctorate degree, where all candidates must take the same general examinations, the student must master *that field* in addition to studying the community development concepts in depth. A field of study within an existing major provides little identity or visibility for the program.

Offering a program as a *field of study within an existing major, but with a new set of required courses,* could enable the student to master a more complete set of relevant community development concepts. Relatively minor institutional changes would be required. Program identity would be improved only slightly over the first alternative, which does not offer a new set of course requirements.

To offer the curriculum through a *new major with new course requirements* gives the program added identity and added flexibility. It should provide easy access to the desired concepts. However, additional institutional change is required here compared to the first alternative. Under each of these three alternatives, the program would likely have to conform to existing departmental emphasis, such as training every graduate student to be a professional researcher.

To offer a degree program through a *new department, school or center* provides very clear visibility and identity. It also provides maximum flexibility and access to the desired concepts by offering courses with the department, school or center or by access to the concepts taught in other departments. The formation of a new department, school or center also allows for the grouping of faculty members from a broader range of backgrounds than would likely be possible in many existing departments that might offer a program in community development. The creation of a new center or school rather than a new department would give the unit more autonomy and flexibility. However, the creation of a department, center or school is a major institutional change.

Under each of these alternatives, someone must be given the responsibility for developing and conducting the program. He should have the authority to recommend curriculum and faculty assignments to the appropriate department or college officials. Without this designation of responsibility and assignment of authority, community development programs will flounder.

Orientation and Inservice Training

Increasing emphasis on expansion of community development programs places an im-

mediate urgency on training needed by a staff that may or may not have had formal training in community development. To help staff develop competency in applying the principles and concepts of community development, intensive short-term learning experiences must be provided. Orientation is extremely critical in providing new staff an understanding of the integrating process of community development and in developing an awareness of principles and concepts central to effective community development work. Inservice training for staff assigned major responsibility in community development should be viewed as a continuous effort to enhance and deepen the understanding and skills of staff in applying and integrating community development concepts.

In order to meet these needs for intensive, rather short-term training experiences, the following opportunities are suggested:

1. National or regional workshops for Extension, research and/or teaching faculty on selected concepts relating to community development.

2. Intensive courses in community development from 1 to 16 weeks for workers from throughout the nation offered by a given university.

3. Inservice training workshops and intensive courses (county, district, state) within a state.

4. Internships with competent community development professionals within or outside the state and within and outside the university.

5. Other programs, such as correspondence courses, self-study units, teaching machines and closed-circuit TV.

6. Sub-regional, regional or national training teams to serve as resource personnel at regional, state, or multi-county training sessions.

7. Exchange of Extension specialists among states for brief periods to assist in staff training.

8. Extension summer and winter schools offering courses relevant to community development.

Summary

Through clearly identifying (a) the role of the community development professional, (b) the educational objectives, and (c) the essential concepts, an effective degree, orientation and inservice training program can be developed which will better meet the needs of community development professionals and better prepare them for the task of community development.

A Community Development Degree Program offered through a new department, school or center gives the most flexibility and the clearest visibility and identity.

Chapter V: Recommendations
—And Summary—

Extension's role in community development is one of education. It does not make or carry out plans for people, but rather helps people to better plan and carry out their own community development efforts.

The community development professional is a consultant to the community in its efforts to bring about desired change. The community development professional is a resource person to steering committees, study groups, local government officials, and individuals or organizations that assume responsibility for various phases of community development.

Clearly defined educational purposes are necessary for outlining the content of a curriculum, developing instructional procedures, assessing student growth and making continued improvements in a program. It is necessary to state the specific educational objectives as related to the Extension work environment as well as the disciplines. This report has utilized the conceptual approach as a means of building a curriculum and developing learning experience. It is assumed that the concepts, theories and principles suggested can be used in planning training experiences for Extension staff in community development work. The concepts central to community development professional training are outlined in Chapter II and discussed in the Appendix.

The Task Force has made 13 separate recommendations for education and training through graduate programs, undergraduate programs, orientation training, inservice train-

ing and community development conferences. These recommendations suggest actions that should be taken by Extension, the land-grant universities, and other colleges and universities to gear their programs to better meet the needs of community, development professionals and to better prepare them for the task of community development.

Recommendations

The ECOP Task Force on Community Development Curriculum and Training Needs recommends that:

1. Each state evaluate staff competency and the availability of training in the concepts described in this document.

2. The Extension Director in each state foster a means for integrating these concepts and their use into a systematic training program.

3. Each state establish orientation training programs of from four to six weeks duration for community development professionals. The programs should include self-study, consultation with other community development workers, and at least three weeks of on-the-job training with an established community development worker. This could be within the state or in another state.

4. Each state provide sufficient inservice training opportunities so that at least one agent from each county receives the equivalent of two weeks of intensive community development training every three years. The Task Force suggests that all agents be given the opportunity for such training during the next three years.

5. The Regional Extension Community Development Committees periodically survey community development professionals within their region regarding problem areas or concepts in which professionals need additional training.

6. The Extension Service-USDA and the Regional Extension Community Development Committees provide leader-

ship for regional or sub-regional workshops for community development professionals and administrators responsible for community development programs.

7. The ECOP Subcommittee on Community Resource Development and Public Affairs provide leadership for national workshops and conferences relating to specific community development areas such as public services, economic development, and recreation. National workshops in each subject area should be held every three to five years.

8. The Extension Service-USDA take the leadership in sponsoring a community development conference in which other agencies would be invited to discuss current programs and policies, future trends and ways of implementing social and economic development. This conference should be held at least biennially.

9. Federal financing supplement state financing of a vastly-expanded training program for orientation, inservice, and graduate training of Extension community development professionals.

10. Where requested by other agencies, Extension and the academic departments of land-grant universities provide training in community development theory, concepts, principles, and methods to other agency personnel.

11. State and regional cooperation be encouraged in the preparation of technical information that can be used in the decision-making process relating to a whole array of community problems:

12. Extension and land-grant university academic departments provide leadership for developing self-study units relating to specific community development concepts and program areas.

13. The Extension Service-USDA serve as a clearinghouse for the exchange of community development materials among states.
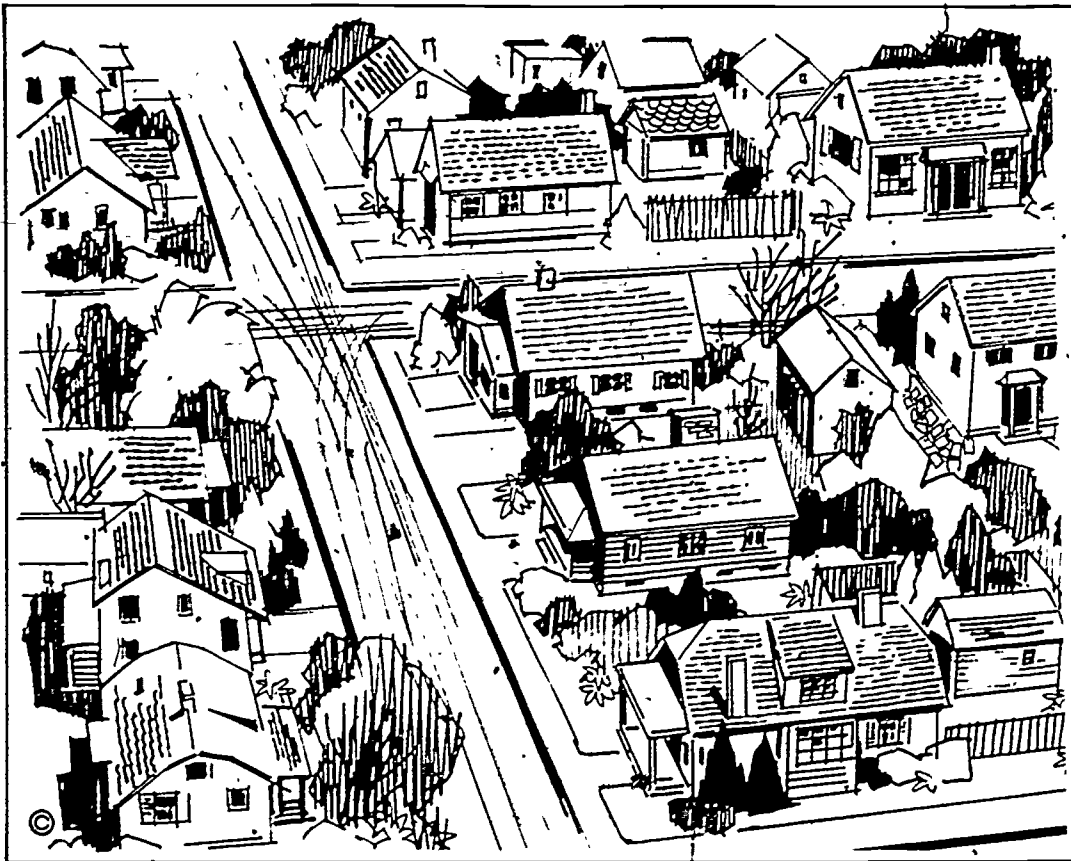
Appendix: Concepts

—Central to Community Development—

The practice of community development is guided by certain time-proven concepts. The most relevant of these are described in this section.

All community development workers should have a good general understanding of each of the concepts discussed in this section. Those specializing in a specific field of community development will also want an in-depth understanding of selected concepts. Other persons, such as community leaders and concerned citizens with an interest in the development of their community, will want to gain a general understanding of selected concepts.

COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT

Community

The concept of *community* has many dimensions. To some it denotes a specific geographical area, to others a social system, and to still others a set of cultural values which people share.

Thus, there are many kinds of communities. They range from those which may have

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only spatial boundaries in common to those which consist of a commonality of interest among persons living in widely-dispersed locations.

To the layman, a community is the place where people live, work, play, go to school and church, buy the things they need, and interact with each other in a variety of ways. Not many years ago, people did all of these things within a well-defined geographic area. Today, people may live in one community, go to school or church in another, make their purchases in several, and work and play in still other communities.

The concept of a community implies one or more groups of people interrelating for the attainment of goals in which they share a common concern. A new village water system, for example, may involve but a few dozen blocks and less than a hundred families. But a specialized health facility, may involve several counties and several hundred thousand citizens. Hence, the definition of the community depends upon the nature of the concerns which people have in common. Another way of stating this concept is that the issue or concern defines the community. The community development professional needs to understand this concept in order to apply the appropriate model to a given situation.

Development

Development is the process of progressive change in attaining individual and community interests or goals. Development can occur through increased knowledge, understanding and skills; additional resources; or a better allocation of existing resources. From an economic view-point, development is generally measured in such terms as per capita income, investments, and income distribution. Socially and culturally, it is measured in terms of quality of living, institutional and organizational structures, accessibility to those structures by citizens, and increases in the range of choices.

Community Development Process

The *Community development process* involves an open system of decision making whereby those comprising the community, use democratic and rational means to arrive at group decisions and to take action for enhancing the social and economic well-being of the community.

The process is predicted on the following premises:[1]

1. People are capable of rational behavior.

2. Significant behavior is learned behavior.

3. Significant behavior is learned through interaction.

4. People are capable of giving direction to their behavior.

5. People are capable of creating, reshaping and influencing their environment.

The process is based upon the following philosophical values and beliefs:

1. People have the right to participate in decisions which have an effect upon their well-being.

2. Participatory democracy is the superior method of conducting community affairs.

3. People have the right to strive to create the environment which they desire when it does not infringe upon the rights of others.

4. People have the right to reject an externally-imposed environment.

5. Maximizing human interaction in a community will increase the potential for human development.

6. Implicit within the process of interaction is an ever-widening concept of community.

7. Every discipline and/or profession is potentially a contributor to a community's development process.

8. Motivation is created in humans by association with their environment, including mankind.

9. Community development as a field of practice is concerned with developing the ability of people to deal with their environment.

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[1] These Community Development premises, values and beliefs are elaborated upon more fully by Don Littrell in his publication, *The Theory and Practice of Community Development*, Extension Division, University of Missouri, Columbia.

The process involves the following elements:

Cooperation——the deliberate effort of people to. work .together to achieve common goals.

Conflict——a natural outgrowth of people dealing with social, economic, and political issues. Conflict can be directed into productive channels and used as a real learning-reasoning process.

Stratification——the natural interests, values, beliefs, abilities and societal and economic positions of people having differing life styles, experiences, and expectations. It can produce differences of opinion and conflict but can also be a major element of "cross-fertilization" of ideas, skills, beliefs, and values. As such, it can produce a superior product in community development.

Representation[2]——implies that the group representative is recognized by his constituency as a legitimate spokesman. It does not imply that anyone from a social, economic, or ethnic group can say that he "represents" the group. The key element of representation is that the constituency selects its representative internally rather than having its "representative" selected externally. :

Participation[2]——involves having a voice in decision making as it evolves, not after decisions are made. It means that everyone has equal right to participate in decisions affecting them. It also means that the community has a moral obligation to assure and to encourage equal access to decision making to as wide a cross section of the community as possible. Participation implies that both the "pros" and the "cons" on any issue are equally legitimate. The end result of such interaction is improved decisions if measured in terms of what the community desires.

Compromise——involves giving up something or modifying a position in order to gain something of higher value. Groups and communities are comprised of individuals of varying interests, thus complete consensus is seldom achieved. In contrast to consensus, compromise recognizes that individuals and groups with differing interests can work effectively together without being wholly in agreement.

[2] For a more detailed discussion of representation and participation see. Hahn. Alan J., "Citizens in Local Politics: Non-Participation and Unrepresentation." *Journal of the Community Development Society.* Vol. 1, No. 2, Fall, 1970. (Columbia, Mo.: Community Development Society)

Influence——seeks to modify contrasting interests to reach a working compromise. It is in sharp contrast to "power" which attempts to control behavior of resources.

Holistic View of Community——emphasizes the functional and organic relationships among cultural, social, physical, political, and economic interests which comprise the community. This view recognizes that changes in one area of community life affect other areas and that the total effect of proposed changes should be critically analyzed as a part of the community development process.

Integration——Generally, agencies and organizations function according to their specialities. Each has its unique competence and objectives in some particular sector of community life. The holistic approach encourages them to *integrate* their plans and activities together into the ongoing planning and activities of the communities they are attempting to serve. Thus, each contributes according to its interest and ability.

Non-Directive Approach——involves helping people decide for themselves what their needs are and assisting them in a rational decision-making process to determine what, if anything, can be done to satisfy these needs. It is in direct contrast to persuading people to accept a solution or a course of action imposed by an outside "authority."

Decision Making——is the rational process of defining a situation, establishing a solution, and implementing it. It involves analysis of the situation (problem or opportunity), analysis of alternative solutions, and establishment of goal(s) and priorities through fact finding, study, establishment of an agreed-upon course of action, implementation of this action, and evaluation of the outcome in terms of the goal. Decisions are made in each step of the process, and the process is inherent in each of these steps.

Community development is a continuous process and not a trouble-shooting operation directed only at solving immediate problems. It seeks (through practical learning situations) to increase the competence of citizens to deal with both present and future issues. It is an educational process in which people learn by "doing the things that need to be done and which they wish to do." Development implies movement or steady improvement rather than only spasmodic activity associated with "problem solving." Community development is an on-going effort. No community ever really

"arrives." There is no good stopping point, and continuity is a natural outgrowth of the community development process.

In summary, the community development process brings people interested and concerned about an issue together to study and act upon the issue at whatever level at which decision making is necessary. It involves cooperation, participation, representation, conflict, compromise and influence, and often includes stratification. It recognizes the validity of different values, interests, and the holistic nature of community issues.

Sources of additional information relating to these concepts include the following:

References. Batten, T. R. and Madge, The Non-Directive Approach in Group and Community Work, Oxford University Press, London, 1967.

Cary, Lee, Community Development as a Process, University of Missouri Press, Columbia, Missouri, 1970. 213 pp.

Hahn, op. cit.

Littrell, op. cit.

Phifer, Bryan and List, Fred, Community Development: A New Dimension of Extension, University of Missouri, Columbia, Mo., 1971. 31 pp.

Sanders, Irvin T., The Community, Ronald Press, New York City, 1966; pp. 504 - 523.

Wallace, L. T., and others, ECOP Report, Community Resource Development, Federal Extension Service, Washington, D. C., 1968.

Warren, Ronald L., Community Action and Community Development, Rand McNally, Chicago, Illinois, 1963, pp. 303 - 339.

Wileden, Arthur, Community Development—The Dynamics of Planned Change, Bedminster Press, Totowa, New Jersey, 1970. 306 pp.

LEARNING CONCEPTS

Behavioral Change

Behavioral change, whether in individuals or groups, is a change in thinking. feeling or action. Such change may also be defined as a change in knowledge, understanding or skills.

Behavioral change is a manifestation of new or increased influence on the individual or group

Early work in the field of behavioral change grew largely out of psychology. More recently sociology and socio-psychology, as well as anthropology, have contributed to the study and understanding of behavioral change, especially in the area of group relationships and group behavior.

At least two institutions offering masters degrees in community development include in their curriculums one or more courses in group behavior and interpersonal relations. These are studied in the context of community development work. Community development workers must be familiar with all the subtleties of individual behavior and group processes if they are to help groups realize their full potential.

The concept of behavioral change is basic to the community development effort. Development itself implies change. Therefore, change —in a desired direction—is greatly sought after and highly prized by the professional community developer.

An example of behavioral change might be drawn from the typical school financing crisis in which bond issues have been consistently voted down by the people. Finally, the school board may decide, through a series of public meetings, to involve citizens in open discussion of the issues. The discussions are not designed to "sell" the public on the school board's position, but rather for the citizens to get answers to questions on which there has been misunderstanding.

Out of this new environment of mutual searching comes a compromise proposal which, while not enthusiastically received, is acceptable to all. When the revised measure is voted upon, it carries, because, in a sense, the citizens have helped to frame it. Both the school board and the voting public behaved quite differently after having to take each other into account. Establishing the conditions in which this "meeting of the minds" can take place is the work of the community developer—whether the "meeting" is between individuals or between groups.

References: Argyle, Michael, The Psychology of Interpersonal Behavior, Penguin Books, Cox and Wyman, LTD, London, England.

Lippitt, Ronald and others, *Dynamics of Planned Change*, Harcourt Brace and Company, New York, 1958.

MacGregor, Douglas, *The Human Side of Enterprise*, McGraw Hill Book Co., New York, 1960.

Stogdill, Ralph, *Individual Behavior and Group Achievement*, Oxford Press, New York, 1959.

The Teachable Moment

The concept of the *teachable moment* points out that real learning is based upon the perceived need of the learner. Facts can be taught in the abstract, but they are only learned when the learner feels the need to apply them to his own situation. Thus, to try to teach principles of community development when there is no perceived need on the part of the learners becomes only an exercise—not a learning experience.

The teachable moment usually occurs after the learners have gone through the process of identifying a felt need and feel the need for additional knowledge or skill to deal with the situation. It is at this point that the community development worker can best teach the subject matter appropriate to help the learners analyze the situation, weigh alternatives, and arrive at group decisions.

Regardless of one's background, the motivation to learn based upon a perceived need is the strongest influence in learning. The concept of the teachable moment is derived from education and psychology and *evidenced through observation of real-life learning experiences. It is especially relevant to adult education since adults do not have the peer pressure or motivation for learning that the youth in the classroom has.

The concept of the teachable moment is essential to education in community development. In its simplest terms, it means starting with the learners (audience) where they are and moving to larger community considerations as the learners perceive the need to relate their felt need to other factors influencing this need.

References: Brunner, DeS., and others, *An Overview of Adult Education Research*, Chicago, Adult Education Association of U.S.A.

Havighurst, Robert J., *Human Development and Education*, New York, Logmans, Gree, and Co., 1953.

Powell, John Walker, *Learning Comes of Age*, New York, Association Press, 1956.

Pressey, S. L., and Kuhlen, R. G., *Psychological Development Through the Life Span*, New York, Harper and Bros., 1957.

Diffusion and Adoption

The diffusion process is a concept which helps to explain the experiences individuals have in learning about and accepting new ideas, practices, skills, and attitudes. Research on this concept has provided useful knowledge on the major sources of information people use in various stages of the process, the rate of adoption of new knowledge or skills among the general population and among specific groups of people, and the flow or diffusion of information from one group to another.

Information on the diffusion process has come largely from anthropology and sociology, particularly rural sociology. The model described here is based upon more than 35 research studies and brought together into a useful conceptual framework by the Subcommittee for the Study of the Diffusion of New Ideas and Practices of the North Central Rural Sociology Committee. This work was first published by George M. Beal and Joseph Bohlen of Iowa State University. Many subsequent research studies on the subject have since been published. Outside of the field of rural sociology, Katz and Lazarsfeld are perhaps the best known students of the diffusion process—especially in the field of medicine, where their findings largely verify those related to the diffusion of agricultural technology.

The diffusion process and its practical use has particular usefulness to community development workers in understanding the characteristics of those who are generally most receptive to new ideas, those less receptive, and how others regard innovators, early adopters, the early majority, the majority, and nonadopters. The concept appears to have value in understanding community attitudes and receptiveness to change. It also provides insights into informal teaching methods most appropriate for persons of different social characteristics.

The utility of the concept to Extension community development workers is threefold. It helps them:

1. To have a better knowledge and understanding of the stages people go through

as individuals in adopting or accepting new ideas and practices;

2. To recognize the difference in various groups of people in relation to the diffusion process: their characteristics, rate of acceptance of ideas, and main sources of information;

3. To better understand the educational methods to use in reaching and influencing particular audiences.

References: Rogers, Everett, Diffusion of Innovations, The Free Press, 1962.

The Diffusion Process, Special Report No. 18, Agricultural Extension Service, Iowa State University, 1959.

Katz, Elihu, and Lazarsfeld, Paul, Personal Influence, The Free Press, 1955.

Lionberger, Herbert F., Adoption of New Ideas and Practices, Iowa State University Press, 1961.

The Science of Human Communication, Edited by Wilbur Schramm, Basic Books, New York, 1963.

Problem Solving

The problem-solving process provides a logical sequence of steps for analyzing situations, arriving at rational decisions, and carrying out action. The problem-solving process centers around the decision-making process. Schein distinguishes two basic cycles of activity—one which occurs prior to an actual decision and one which occurs following a decision to take a particular action.[3] The first cycle that leads to a decision consists of:

1. problem formulation (getting the idea);

2. generating alternative solutions (gathering data);

3. analyzing the consequences of alternative solutions (weighing alternatives).

In most problem-solving situations, a critical step in the process is that of problem formulation or identification. A considerable amount of diagnosis often is required to separate prob-

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[3]Schein, Edgar H., Process Consultation, Its Role in Organization Development, Addison-Wesley Publishing Company, Reading Massachusetts, 1969, Chapter 5.

lems from symptoms. Hence, decision makers must have a clear understanding of the particular goals and objectives that are being pursued.

The second cycle follows the decision to take action and involves the following steps:

1. Planning for action.

2. Implementing the action.

3. Evaluating the outcomes (which might lead back to the initial step of problem formulation).

Effective communication is of particular importance in group problem solving and must be established and maintained in order to articulate community problems, to arrive at rational decisions, and to carry out appropriate action.

SOCIOLOGICAL CONCEPTS

A staff member functioning in community development needs to think about and understand the environment within which he works and to know how to effectively cope with that environment in order to instigate change. The task of helping people to plan for and obtain desired goals of their community is facilitated by understanding the conceptual framework of the social system and by applying these conceptual skills to a model of planned change.

A model of planned change might include the following phases:

1. To map relevant social systems.

2. To initiate ideas through one or more systems.

3. To secure legitimation for ideas.

4. To diffuse ideas to the larger social systems.

5. To plan for objectives.

6. To take action to obtain objectives.

7. To evaluate outcomes.

These sociological concepts help people to close the gap between "what is" and "what ought to be" in their communities.

The sociologist focuses on group behavior: the relationships among individuals as they interact to accomplish group goals. In fact, any

society consists of the arrangements that people in a circumscribed geographic location inherit or generate to solve their common problems. They develop institutions to collectively carry out programs and activities. Sociologists have developed a body of concepts to aid in understanding and predicting these relationships among people, to understand how people organize themselves to solve common problems, and how groups adapt to various environments. Hence, sociology is a science of group behavior. The social engineer who attempts to assist in bringing about social change should understand various sociological concepts which will sensitize him to group behavior and provide insight to variables which influence the outcome of group efforts.

It is readily apparent that a group can be viewed in terms of several frames of reference: as a population of individuals, as a system of authority, as a system of likes and dislikes, as a system of communication or diffusion of information, or in terms of group maintenance or group goals. The concept which combines these major frames of reference is the social system model.

Social System

A *social system* is a conceptual model of social organization designed to help one visualize that certain human collectives or groups are systems whose parts are interdependent and which, as unities, are in turn interlinked with one another through mutual dependencies. The prerequisites for a social system are two or more people in interaction, directed toward attaining a goal, and guided by patterns of structure and shared symbols and expectation. Society is viewed as a social system, made up of component groups and subsystems, and functioning through a series of operations necessary for its survival (recruitment of new members, boundary maintenance, communication, allocation of power, resources, and prestige). A social system must adjust to internal and external changes if it is to keep its identity and its ability to accomplish its goals and to compete with other systems which might challenge it. Each part is related to another part and the system as a whole. Processes can be studied in terms of their origin within the system and their effects on the system. Or in terms of how external changes introduced into the system modify the behavior of persons and groups within the system. The community development worker uses the social system model to view the structural aspects of society as well as the social processes.

Social systems can be identified by observable patterns of behavior and interaction. The concept applies to both large and small groups and permits analysis of individual elements and processes of the group as a totality. Social systems can be considered as concrete, interactive social structures such as a family, a community group, or a local church congregation. At a more abstract level, social systems may be viewed as a pattern of relationships which prevail from generation to generation and from one region to another entirely apart from the specific persons within the system. For example, the Catholic Church could be regarded as a social system with separate local congregations making up the subsystems.

For a social system to survive or operate with some degree of effectiveness, there are certain minimal functional requirements. These are: provision for biological reproduction and survival, socialization of new members, motivation of members to carry out socially necessary roles and maintenance of some degree of social order.

The observable consequences of social phenomena that results from the action of a part or whole of a system is termed *functional*. Consequences which are helpful or useful and increase or maintain admustment or adaptation to the system, are the functional consequences. Consequences which are harmful or impede the increase or maintenance of adaptation or adjustment are termed dysfunctional.

The concept, *social system,* can be used by the community development educator as an analytical tool to study society and the learner. For example, before a community development effort is undertaken by a given community, those involved must know something about the community. A starting point could be a study of the community to identify its social systems. The next step would be to clarify the objectives of each social system.

To more adequately understand social systems, it is necessary to examine a number of elements common to all social systems. These elements include belief, sentiment, objectives or ends, norms, position, role, rank, power and sanction, territoriality and facility. These elements comprise the structure and goal orientation dimensions.

References. Bertrand, Alvin, *Basic Sociology. An Introduction to Theory and Method,* Appleton.

Loomis, Charles P., *Rural Social Systems and*

Adult Education, Michigan State University Press, 1957.

Merton, Robert K., *Social Theory and Social Structure*, Free Press, 1968.

Monane, Joseph H., *Sociology of Human Systems*, Appleton.

Parsons, Talcott, *Social Systems*, Free Press, 1951.

Social Interaction

Social interaction is the reciprocal relations between people in the social system. Social interaction is a symbolic process conducted by human beings who employ verbal and physical gestures which have a special meaning. Interaction may be formal or informal, friendly or antagonistic. Response of some type may be elicited. Four characteristices of interaction are: plurality of actors, communication between the actors by means of symbols, a duration or time dimension possessing a past, present, and future, and some objective which may or may not conincide with the actor or the objective observer who studies behavior. Interaction may develop into several forms ranging from cooperation to conflict over means and objectives.

References: Bertrand, Alvin, *op.cit.*

Gouldner, Alvin W., and others, *Modern Sociology: An Introduction to the Study of Human Interaction*, Harcourt, Brace, 1963.

Loomis, Charles P., *op.cit.*

Merrill, Francis E., *Society and Culture*, (3rd ed.), Prentice-Hall, 1965.

Communication

Communication is the process of transmitting culture in the system. Human communication should be conveyed to a person or persons so that the messages sent and received are equivalent, that is, both the sender and receiver have the same understanding of the message. Only by feedback can the sender determine effectiveness of communication. Thus, communication is a two-way process. Human communication is accomplished through learned signs or symbols that manifest the part of the culture which is referred to as language. Language enables man to communicate beyond the level of feelings to that of highly involved abstract ideas. The purposes of communication are to inform and to motivate. Communication involves a sender, a message, a medium and a receiver. The sender should recognize that the receiver responds not only to the message, but also to the medium through which it is sent. Communication can be face-to-face or impersonal, using mass media such as radio, television, newspaper, magazine, or letter.

The concept, communication, is basic to the learning-teaching process. The adult educator can use the concept of communications as the sender through the selection of the message, giving it effective treatment, and choosing the methods of teaching.

References: Berlo, David K., *The Process of Communication*, Rinehart and Winston Holt, New York, 1960.

Bertrand, Alvin, *op. cit.*

Frutchey, Fred P., "The Learning-Teaching Process," in H. C. Sander's *The Cooperative Extension Service*, Prentice-Hall, 1966.

Reeder, R. L., and others, *A Proposed Construct for Two-Way Communication in Resource Development*, Iowa State University, Cooperative Extension Service, Ames, 1970.

Organizational Boundary Maintenance

Organizational boundary maintenance refers to how the system maintains its own identify. Some societies literally build walls around themselves; others build symbolic walls which keep out the norms and values of a larger society. Boundary maintenance is evident in groups such as the Armed Forces, religious groups, and secret societies. The identity of the system is maintained through such devices as secret passwords, uniforms, professional ties, employment status, and tenure. It is important that the community development educator recognize the functions and dysfunctions of maintaining boundaries. Also, if we are familiar with the factors forming boundaries in social systems, we are in a much better position to penetrate these social systems with programs of change.

References: Bertrand, Alvin, *op. cit.*

Loomis, Charles P., and Beegle, J. Allan, *Rural Sociology: The Strategy of Change*, Prentice-Hall, 1957.

Merrill, Francis E., *op. cit.*

Decision making

Decision making involves choices made from a set of alternatives. It refers to selecting the most desirable action to contribute to the solution of a problem. The steps in the decision-making process are: defining the problem, collecting significant facts, listing possible solutions, evaluating alternatives, setting priorities, implementing and evaluating the action.

A principal task of the community development educator may be to help a group estimate consequences of alternative solutions. Also he can help the group integrate solutions rather than compromise. The goal is to reduce available, alternative courses of action to solution reached by consensus.

References: Loomis, Charles P., *op. cit.*

Wasserman, Paul, and Silander, F. S., *Decision Making: An Annotated Bibliography,* Cornell University, 1964.

Socialization

Socialization. Through it the individual acquires the social and cultural heritage of his society. It is a process of social interaction in which the individual acquires ways of thinking, feeling, and acting essential for effective participation within a society.

Through socialization, one becomes a functioning member of a group. In essence, one is transformed from a separate identity into a group member through the process of socialization.

The adult educator needs to be aware that often inappropriate socialization results when a person or people move from one cultural setting to another. This is especially true when persons move from rural areas to cities or from one region to another; they are likely to react in ways considered strange or deviant by members of their new culture.

References: Bertrand, Alvin, *op. cit.*

Bredemeier, H. C., and Stephenson, R. M., *Analysis of Social Systems,* HR&W, 1962.

Loomis, Charles P., and Beegle, J. Allan, *op. cit.*

Merrill, Francis E., *op. cit.*

Social Control

Social control refers to the process which limits behavior of people in social systems. When behavior becomes deviant or intolerable, it is brought back into the established limits through the exercise of sanctions.

Adult educators may use means of social control in initiation of programs. For example, in the community the church is an important means of keeping its members in line. Consequently, by working through the church and getting the positive sanction of the church, the community development educator may be more effective in initiating and bringing about planned change in this particular community. Identification of organizations which can legitimize and lend support is a required skill.

By knowing what positive sanctions are important to the group—such as praise, public recognition, election to office—the community development educator can exert positive pressures within the community to counteract opposition. In some areas, praise goes a long way; in others, it is confused with flattery and received suspiciously, especially from newcomers. Or again putting one person in the limelight may make others envious and less cooperative.

To effectively use social control, the community development educator needs to realize that social control mechanisms need not be undemocratic and are necessary for community life. The effective controls should be kept in the hands of the followers, not surrendered to dictatorial ambiguous leaders.

References: Bertrand, Alvin, *op. cit.*

La Piere, Richard T., *A Theory of Social Control,* McGraw-Hill, 1954.

Martindale, Don A., *American Social Structure: Historical Antecedents and Contemporary Analysis,* Appleton, 1960.

Social Change

Social change is, in a general way, a continuous process which is manifested in alterations in social relationships. Social change may start in any part of the social system through changes in the external (pattern) of the group, alterations in its physical environment, technical organization or even in its internal system (pattern) and will have effects of a greater or

lesser order on all these. People everywhere are constantly changing their ways. Generally, people resist changes that appear to threaten basic securities or changes they do not understand.

The sources of change may come from forces outside the society or from forces within it.

Since no society is wholly integrated or completely static, there are always points of tension or strain as potential sources of change. These strains, which are often the result of change as well as its source, may take many forms such as role conflict, divergent values, social deprivation, competing interest, and the inability to achieve socially valued goals with the available means. They emerge from the workings of accepted institutions and established values or are related to various kinds of changes already taking place at other points in the culture or social structure.

The concept of social change can be observed in the changing patterns of the emerging American family system. The recent change in the status of women is perhaps the most far-reaching. This change is manifested in more equal educational opportunities, in increasing employment equality, and in an increase in the range of social opportunities and contacts for women.

Through instigated social action, social change may be brought about that will maximize satisfactions for members of a social system. Social action occurs in the neighborhood, community, formal systems, etc.

References. Beal, George M., *Social Action and Interaction in Program Planning*.

Bertrand, Alvin, *op. cit.*

Chinoy, Ely S., *Society: An Introduction to Sociology*, rev. ed., Random, 1967.

Social Movement

A *social movement* is one mechanism for bringing about change in a society. It generally involves a group of people whose goal is to change attitudes or behavior of the larger society. Its main features are: a distinctive perspective and ideology, a strong sense of solidarity and idealism, and an orientation to action. Stresses and strains in the society are potential sources of goals for social move-

ments. Examples of social movements are: educational programs designed to change values and beliefs, civil rights movements, and national socialism in pre-war Germany. Community development workers need to be constantly aware of social movements on the horizon. These movements may be functional or dysfunctional for the program.

References: Bertrand, Alvin, *op. cit.*

Boyardus, Emory, *Sociology*, (4th ed.), MacMillan, 1954.

Broom, Leonard, and Selznick, Philip, *Principles of Sociology*, Harper Row, 1970.

Chinoy, Ely S., *op. cit.*

Heberle, Rudolf, *Social Movements: An Introduction to Political Sociology*, Appleton, 1969.

Merrill, Francis E., *op. cit.*

GEOGRAPHIC CONCEPTS

Region

The word *region* has many meanings. But in recent years it has been increasingly applied to an area larger than a county and more often a multi-county area. Some states have adopted the title Regional Planning Districts for those sub-areas of government larger than a county.

Originally the concept of regions was largely related to geography but represented much larger areas than those defined above. The current influence of economists, sociologists, political scientists, and community developers has been to reduce the region to an area small enough to be traversed by its citizens from the borders to the center in approximately one hour by car. Such areas are organized to encourage cooperation between various local governments of the area and the concerned citizens, and for the better use of the area's resources. The region thus defined serves a daily and weekly need of the people of the area for services that cannot be provided by their individual communities.

Community developers are constantly faced with the problem of small and often declining populations and their need for social services and commercial functions which can only be provided by the pooling of efforts to share the cost and to provide the demand that will justify the service.

While a minimum population may be necessary to support a given service, it is also true that the service must be within acceptable distance of the consumer to be of value. Thus the hour radius from a regional center has special significance to rural America.

References. Denney, Hugh, *Decongesting Metropolitan America. A Method for Identifying Growth and Service Centers,* Columbia, University of Missouri, 1972, 132 pp. illustrated.

Fox, Karl A. and Kumar, T. Krisha, *Delineating Functional Economic Areas,* Research and Education for Regional and Area Development, Iowa State Press, Ames, Iowa, 1966, pp. 13-55.

Central Place

The *Central Place Theory* has been intensively studied by economic geographers, but it has also received the attention of sociologists, economists and others.

Citizens have tended to establish a pattern of social and commercial services around a central place convenient to their common use. In the course of history, changes in population distribution will cause some central places to lose their significance and others to become more important. Unless the services are subsidized by the larger society, they must adjust to the rise or fall of populations.

Recognition of the central place in an area with the greatest promise is necessary to enable the residents to concentrate limited resources to produce maximum effect on an area. A counter theory is to disperse resources throughout an area. In either case, the community development professional and residents need to understand the significance of the central place.

Reference: Denney, Hugh, *op. cit.*

Functional Area

The concept of a *functional area* or viable community is that there is a certain economic and population base necessary to provide adequate public and private services, facilities, and job opportunities for the people of the area. During the early 1900's less than 100 square miles and a few thousand population provided the necessary base in rural America for a viable community, Today, with much higher expectations and travel ten times as fast as during the early part of the century, a much larger population and geographic area is required in the rural areas.

It is important that those working in the area of community development have a thorough understanding of what is required to provide the base necessary to support the public and private services, facilities, and job opportunities expected by the local citizens. In addition to knowing the base necessary to support a viable functional economic area, it is also important to understand the alternatives for forming viable communities which include: (a) cooperation between units of government, (b) consolidation of functions, (c) contracting of a function.

References: Denney, Hugh, *op. cit.*

Fox, Karl, *op. cit.*

Phillips, G. Howard, and Bottum, John S., "Report 1—Socio-Economic Activity Centers," Ohio Appalachia Regional Community Study, Ohio State University, Columbus, 1968, 36 pp.

POLITICAL CONCEPTS

Political Culture

Political culture consists of the patterns of perceptions, orientations, attitudes, expectations, values and skills which are current in the population regarding political symbols, roles, organization, actions and other pertinent aspects of the political system.

Political sub-culture refers to identifiable cultural patterns regarding political life which are associated with special groupings, i.e., an ethnic group which can be differentiated from the predominant modes of the population taken as a whole.

The concept of culture is most closely related to anthropology. Much work in effectively using this specialized application of the culture concept to understand and deal with political action, organization, and other phenomenon depends upon anthropological theories and information. Political scientists, however, have been most active adapting the concept of cultures for improved analysis of politics and attempting to integrate political culture into a systems framework.

The community development professional is constantly involved with establishing situations and learning opportunities related to the complex interactions among a broad range of citizens, political officials, governmental units, public bureaucracies, and State and Federal programs. These interactions are substantially conditioned by the content of the political culture of each of the participants. Even the very approach of the community development professional to his task is connected to the content of the political culture he himself has assimilated.

The concept of political culture helps bring the dimension of attitudes and effective orientations to the level of consciousness. Thus, the community development professional can take these essential elements into account and deal with them intelligently.

In dealing with political situations, the community development professional often will find it useful to have command of concepts concerning some "ideal types" of political cultures. Elazar has defined three broad types of political cultures applicable to the United States. These are *individualistic, moralistic,* and *traditional.*

1. The *individualistic political culture* emphasizes minimal government and a minimum of governmental interference in the private sector of the economy.
2. The *moralistic political culture* puts a great deal of emphasis on improving the community or commonwealth; government action is encouraged to accomplish this improvement.

3. The *traditionalist culture* emphasizes a strong commitment to an existing social and political order and is primarily associated with the pre-commercial era of the South.

Using these political cultures or various combinations of them, e. g., moralistic-individualistic, individualistic-moralistic, provides rudimentary typology helpful in understanding the dimensions of local political culture.

References. Dohm, Richard R., *Political Culture of Missouri,* Providing Public Services Series, Extension Division, University of Missouri-Columbia MP228, Columbia, Missouri, 1971.

Dohm, Richard R., *Reform from Within. The Development of the City Administrator Form of Government in Small Missouri Cities,*

School of Business and Public Administration, University Extension Division, University of Missouri-Columbia, Columbia, Missouri, 1970.

Elazar, Daniel J., *American Federalism. A View From the States,* Thomas Y. Crowell Company, New York, 1966.

Political System Functions

The concept of *political system functions* involves the notion that basic operations are common to all political systems and that every political system must have capacities to perform these fundamental tasks, one way or another, in order to remain an effective system.

Final determination has not been made, and probably cannot be made, as to the most appropriate functions for consideration as basic political system tasks. Though it must be considered tentative, a group of seven functions has proven of great use in developing understanding of political systems operation. These basic political system functions are discussed below:

Political socialization and recruitment is the process in which the population is inducted into the political culture. The sets of attitudes, values, feelings towards the political system as a whole, its various roles, and the role required of incumbents to provide a level of legitimacy to the political system among the politically relevant population must be communicated and imparted to the people. In addition, the political system requires some people to participate as incumbents of roles within it, e.g., voter, political party committeemen, political information communicator, etc.

Interest articulation is the process of giving expression to the concerns, needs, and demands that exist within the society. This may involve explicit formulation of claims and/or more latent behavioral or mood clues which are transmitted into the political system.

Interest aggregation is the process of bringing together, combining, and accommodating various claims and demands. This is applied to the more inclusive level of the aggregation process. For example, inter-actions of this type between individuals and small groups would most likely be considered under interest articulation, while the drawing together of interest in a pressure group, political party,

or citizens council would be considered at the level of interest aggregation.

Political communication is involved in all functions, but classifying it as a special function is helpful in looking for political communication channels which may be diffused through-out the system. It is such a crucial function that a separate classification is warranted. In modern political systems, there are often highly differentiated and specialized political communication networks.

Rule making is basically similar to the traditional legislative function. However, there is no notion that this function is restricted to legislative bodies and formal-legal structures.

Rule application is basically similar to the traditional executive function. Like, rule making, there is no notion that rule application is restricted to the formally designated officers and organizations in the operating political system.

Rule adjudication is similar to the traditional judicial function. Again there is no restriction that this is performed only in the court subsystems or designated quasi-judicial agencies.

These basic political science functions are closely associated with functionalism. Political science has been concerned with functions in its oldest theory. The tendency until recently was to concentrate on the output functions, i.e., rule making, application, and ajudication. The greater concern with the input functions like socialization and recruitment has come fairly directly from anthropological and sociological theory. Major anthropologists and sociologists have done a great deal recently with application of functionalism to analysis of society and social structures

The main help these concepts provide to the community development professional is that they give a framework in which to perceive many of the processes in which he is involved. The input functional categories of political socialization-recruitment, interest articulation, interest aggregation, and communication are particularly helpful because much of the educational work in the field relates to developing citizens' capacities to perform in the system and to carry out these functions. Differentiation of these functions conceptually can aid in sharpening the focus of the field education efforts.

Community development professionals are concerned with providing opportunities to communities to increase the level and quality of participation on the part of the citizens. As such, they are often engaged with a reordering of the socialization and recruitment process to better fit the needs of the citizens so they can become better prepared for direct involvement in the decision-making systems.

Reference: Almond, Gabriel A., "A Functional Approach to Comparative Politics," in The Politics of Developing Areas, Almond and James Colemen, editors, Princeton University Press, New Jersey, 1960.

Demand and Support Inputs

In a general system's framework, the system operation is conceived as having three basic components: input; conversion; output. In connection with political system, the input component can be classified by use of the concepts, demand inputs and support inputs.

Demand inputs are those types that make requests upon the political system that require processing to produce some specific output. For example, segments of society may:

1. demand specific allocations of goods and services;

2. demand regulation of some specific type of behavior;

3. demand opportunities for participation in the political system; or

4. demand communication and information.

Support inputs are those types that help maintain the system and assist it in its operations, rather than requiring a response in the form of an output. For example, citizens may:

1. provide material support, e.g., pay taxes;

2. obey laws and regulations;

3. participate in the system, e.g., vote;

4. give deference to public authority and symbols.

Most disciplines have contributed to developments in the system's concepts. The wide use of the system theory has provided, in fact, a common ground that facilitates interdisciplinary efforts and has permitted use of basic concepts across traditional disciplinary

lines. Any work done within a system frame-work depends heavily upon all the disciplines that have system-related concepts. The first major development of the demand inputs and support inputs concepts as applied in the context of political system was done by a political scientist, David Easton.

The community development professional will be involved in controversial situations and will be well aware of specific demands that are being made of the political systems or sub-system by particular elements of the population. Because of the intensity and visibility of such events, without the demand and support input concepts as tools, the professional can easily overlook a whole and vital area of political life—the arrangements, goods, attitudes, actions and energies that keep the political system functional or contribute to making it dysfunctional.

Community development, of course, depends upon the stresses and tensions generated by demands from citizens to provide the dynamics for growth toward maturity. Yet a community cannot handle the dynamics of development unless it can create and maintain a responsive, flexible, and effective system of decision making and implementation. The political structures are often the critical sub-systems of the community in many areas of concern. The differentiation of support and demand inputs helps the field worker provide a broader and more appropriate range of educational experiences. It will help in creating learning situations relative to both becoming effective in securing specific desired outputs and in providing the necessary resources required to maintain adequate system performance.

References: Almond, Gabriel A., Powell, G. Bingham Jr., Comparative Politics: A Developmental Approach, Little, Brown and Company, Boston, 1965.

Easton, David, A Framework for Political Analysis, Prentice-Hall, Inc. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey, 1965.

ECONOMIC CONCEPTS

Certain economic principles and concepts have proven valid for use in community development. These concepts provide useful constructs for analysis and are essential to rational decision making. Community development professionals should be familiar

with these concepts and their practical application as tools to assist in community decision making. These selected concepts and lists of references are included as a guide.

Marginal Analysis

Marginal analysis is a basic economic principle. The term "marginal" in an economic sense means "additional" or the last increment added or produced. For example, "marginal cost" means whatever the cost of the last unit of production adds to the total cost. If the total cost of five units is $100 and the total cost of producing six units is $115, the marginal cost of producing the incremental (sixth) unit is $15.

Several useful economic concepts are based on the marginal principle. Diminishing returns is a principle that can be applied to problem solving in almost every phase of community development. The principle itself states that output will increase with each added input (holding other factors constant) to some point beyond which the added input will contribute less and less to the total output.

Economic diminishing return is similar to the principle of diminishing physical returns except that inputs and outputs are expressed in dollar values instead of physical units. The dollar value of the output resulting from the last unit of input applied represents the marginal revenue product of the last unit of input. Similarly marginal resource cost is the dollar value of acquiring and using the last additional units of input. Comparing the costs and returns associated with the last unit of resource used, the most rational allocation of the resource will occur when the last unit hired results in the marginal cost equalling the marginal return.

The equa-marginal principle explains how to equate or maximize the use of a scarce resource or output. The equa-marginal principle states that a scarce resource should be allocated between competing uses so that the return from that resource is equal for all uses. This is especially relevant in community development to evaluating possible allocation of scarce resources among competing facilities and services.

The principle of substitution is similar to the principle of equa-marginal returns. In the equa-marginal principle, a single input is equated between competing uses, whereas the principle of substitution states "that if the quantity

of output is constant it is economic to substitute one factor of production for another if the new combination of resources costs less than the former.''

Opportunity Cost

Opportunity cost is an important consideration in the analysis of regional or an area economy. Briefly stated, opportunity cost, in economics, means the opportunities that must be foregone in order to use resources for a given economic activity. The concept is critical in regard to numerous facets of community development, both public and private. In the public sector, the expenditure of tax revenues always involves opportunity costs in terms of alternative benefits or program impacts that must be foregone in order to fund a particular public project.

Relating to the interrelationships among economic phenomena are the concepts of complementary, supplementary, and competitive activities. *Complementary enterprises* or activities are those that, in the production of one product, enhance or increase the production of another product. An example in community development would be the improvement of a city's water supply which would increase its capacity for industrial development.

Supplementary activities or enterprises are those which are possible or feasible as a result of the other being present. An example in community development might be using a street maintenance crew that would ordinarily be underemployed on park development and upkeep as well.

Competitive activities or enterprises are those actually vying for the same resources; the production or presence of one is at the expense of the other. In community development, where most of the activities are financed from local tax revenues, this concept is important, for needed activities must be determined and priorities set.

References: Barlowe, Raleigh, *Land Resource Economics*, Prentice-Hall, Inc., Englewood Cliffs, N.J., 1963, Chapters 12, 13, and 14.

Bradford, Lawrence A. and Johnson, Glenn L., *Farm Management Analysis*, John Wiley and Sons Inc., New York, 1953, Chapters 11 and 12.

Castle, Emery N. and Becker, Manning H.,

Farm Business Management, The MacMillan Company, New York, London, 1962, Chapter 3.

McConnell, Campbell R., *Economics Principles, Problems and Politics,* Fourth Edition, McGraw-Hill, New York, 1969.

Miernyk, William H., *Input-Output Analysis,* Random House, New York, 1965.

Nourse, Hugh O., *Regional Economics,* McGraw-Hill, New York, 1968.

Vincent, Warren H., *Economics and Management in Agriculture,* Prentice-Hall, Inc., Englewood Cliffs, N.J., 1962, Chapters 3,4,5, and 6.

Economics of Size

Size, in an economic sense, refers to à specific level of specific inputs or outputs. Size of a community is generally expressed in terms of population.

Economies of size is a useful concept in community development in that certain savings can be made or physical efficiency can be gained by increasing the size. A good example might be in solid waste disposal. One small town or rural community may not be able to financially afford an adequate sanitary landfill, but by consolidating into a county or multi-county effort the cost per family might be greatly reduced for a facility that would meet the proper standards for sanitary disposal and pollution abatement. Many public facilities and services can fit the same criteria.

Diseconomies of size is also possible. Every level of economic activity or institutional arrangement has a maximum effective, or economically efficient size. A business, industry, school or city can become so large that management becomes less effective and the economies gained by consolidation, added inputs, or assembly line procedures are lost because of ineffective supervision, absentee decision making, etc. The community development worker can use these concepts in helping the community increase its efficiency. Through their combined experiences, optimums may be established.

References. Bradford, Lawrence A. and Johnson, Glenn L., *op. cit.*

Castle, Emery N. and Becker, H. Manning, *op. cit.*

McConnell, Campbell R., *op. cit.*

Vincent, Warren H., *op. cit.*

Inter-Industry and Input-Output Analysis

Inter-industry analysis provides an excellent approach to area or regional economic structural analysis. Applied empirically, the inter-industry framework indicates the level of various area economic activities as well as the economic interrelationships linking the numerous sectors of the area or regional economy. Data organized in an inter-industry framework provide much of the empirical input required for input-output analysis.

The principle features of *input-output analysis* are that it permits a detailed presentation of the production and distribution characteristics of individual industries within a region and the nature of the interrelationships among them and other sectors of the economy. Based on an understanding of the level of economic activity and inter-relationships among sectors of an area or regional economy, input-output analysis is a powerful tool for estimating the impact of planned activities upon the economic structure. Thus input-output techniques can assist significantly in decision making regarding allocation of resources and economic development.

Multiplier Analysis

To measure the impact of change in the economy, *multiplier analysis* is often used. The multiplier indicates the magnitude of change in overall economic activity resulting from direct change in one sector of the economy. Expressed as a ratio, the multiplier measures all effects—direct and indirect—to the direct effects of the change. There are a number of multipliers that are useful in explaining the total change resulting from changing a specific economic variable. These include: economic base multiplier, income multiplier, employment multipliers, and input-output multipliers.

The multiplier concept is of particular concern to policy makers and community development workers who are responsible for various public programs and who wish to determine the impact of a proposed public expenditure or program. The multiplier concept' can give an indication of the cumulative impact of a change in a key economic variable.

References: Barlowe, Raleigh, *op. cit.*

Castle, Emery N. and Becker, Manning H., *op. cit.*

Ciriacy-Wantrip, Siegfried V., *Resource Conservation*, University of California, 1952, p. 51.

Isard, Walter, *Methods of Regional Analysis: An Introduction to Regional Science*, The MIT Press, Cambridge, 1960.

Leftwich, Richard H., *The Price System and Resource Allocation*, Third Edition, Holt, Rinehart and Winston, New York, 1966.

Leontief, Wassily, *Input-Output Economics*, Oxford University Press, New York, 1966.

Liebhobsky, H. H., *The Nature of Price Theory*, The Dorsey Press, Inc., Homewood, Illinois, 1963.

McConnell, Campbell, R., *op. cit.*

Miernyk, William H. *op. cit.*

Nourse, Hugh O., *op. cit.*

Sloan, Harold S. and Zurcher, Arnold J., *op. cit.*

Interregional Competition

International, national, state, and local economic conditions bear heavily upon the economic development of a particular region or community. The fact that local economies are linked to other larger economic units means that events in one may have important repercussions on the other. Therefore, it is important that the community development worker be aware of the historical development of his area of concern and be knowledgeable of the local, regional, and national factors that have generated the kinds of economic relationships developed.

References: Isard, Walter, *op. cit.*

Leftwich, Richard H., *op. cit.*

Nourse, Hugh O., *op. cit.*

Benefit-Cost Analysis

Benefit-cost analysis is a means of testing project quality and of selecting those projects

that are most desirable with respect to economic efficiency. Estimation of benefits and costs for alternative projects indicates whether or not the ratio of benefits to costs justifies the development; hence it serves as an aid to decision making. As a type of economic analysis it is designed to ascertain the extent to which economic resources such as land, labor, and materials are more or less effective than if the project were not undertaken. It is a concept that can be used in community development work to evaluate alternative employment of resources or to assist in setting project priorities. It emphasizes the economic efficiency of resource use.

References. Barlowe, Raleigh, *op. cit.*

Isard, Walter, *op. cit.*

Vincent, Warren H., *op. cit.*

FEASIBILITY CONCEPTS

In the task of facilitating citizen involvement, decision making, and carrying out action, the community development professional must understand the concept of feasibility including the various criteria which determine feasibility. Within the context of community decision making, numerous ideas and schemes are offered as alternative solutions to identified community problems. These alternatives may have social, economic, political and institutional implications, all of which must be analyzed.

Feasibility can be described as capable of being done or carried out in a practical and reasonable manner. Feasibility can best be understood by considering its components, i.e., the physical, economic, administrative, political, and cultural ones.

Physical feasibility simply means: "Can it be done?" With modern technology, a task, a project, or structure can probably be built or accomplished. But the basis of this concept should stress the practicality of the feat. Dams, buildings, and roads are possible from an engineering and construction standpoint, but may not be the best solution. When several alternatives are physically feasible, then one or more of the other criteria will become the critical factor.

Economic feasibility in our system is one of the most important aspects of this concept. A project may be physically possible, but if it is too costly in terms of time, money or other resources in relation to the expected return, then it probably is not economically feasible. In making an economic feasibility study, several economic concepts are involved. These are opportunity costs, benefit-cost ratio, and the proper use of interest by amortization or discounting.

Political feasibility indicates that a proposal must be within the present legal boundaries or that proposed legislation would be acceptable to the voters and/or legislators so that the plan or program could be implemented. Often the final test in community development as to political feasibility comes in the form of a bond issue where the public is asked to go into debt for the sake of a specific project.

Cultural feasibility is meeting the standards of criteria of a local community or of the major ethnic group of that community. Often a practice, program, or structure that is normal or standard on a state or national level is unacceptable to a local group. As an example, high rise apartments may be acceptable by state and area planners, lawmakers, and the general public but would be unacceptable in one of the same region's local rural towns.

Administrative feasibility is a key consideration in tax policies and programs. Often a tax scheme would be a good source of revenue, but administrative costs exceed the income. Sales taxes and income taxes both have high administrative costs and at a local level sometimes approach a nonfeasible status.

References: Barlowe, Raleigh, *op. cit.*

Ciriacy-Wantrip, Siegfried V., *op. cit.*

Renne, Roland R., *Land Economics*, Harper and Brothers, New York, 1947, Chapters 14 and 15.

PROPERTY RIGHTS

The increasing complexity of social institutions with which the community development professional finds his clientele involved makes it essential that an understanding of law become part of his training program. Among the legal concepts needed are those of property and of private and public rights involving property ownership and control.

Property is a complicated legal concept. In the legal sense, property consists not of objects but of man's rights with respect to material

objects. In our society, the existence of property rights presupposes the presence of.

1. an owner together with other persons who can be excluded from the exercise of ownership rights;

2. property objects that can be held as private or public possessions;

3. a sovereign power that will sanction and protect the property rights vested in individuals or groups.

Property has two important attributes—it must be capable of being appropriated and must have value.

Based on our concept of property, there are a host of laws, rules, regulations, and ethic values that must be considered. The community development professional will deal in these when carrying out programs with people on land use, water problems, pollution abatement, planning, industrial development, and taxation policies.

A simple problem such as the right-of-way dispute for a needed community facility may deter construction for years if the property rights of the individual and the public are not clearly understood by all parties concerned. By understanding these rights, the community development professional through a public education program can help bring about a decision.

References. Barlow, Raleigh, *Land Resource Economics*, Prentice-Hall, Inc., Englewood Cliffs, N.J., 1963, Chapters 12, 16 and 17.

Ciriacy-Wantrip, Siegfried V., *Resource Conservation*, University of California, 1952, p. 51.

Ely, Richard T. and George S. Wehrwein, *Land Economics*, The MacMillan Company, New York, 1940, Chapter IV.

Noyes, C. Reinold, *The Institution of Property*, Logmans, Green and Company Inc., New York, 1936, p. 353.

Renne, Roland R., *Land Economics*, Harper and Brothers, New York, 1947 Chapter 14, pp. 114-152.

Community Development workers should have a general understanding of concepts used in education, sociology, geography, political science, economics, and those of property rights.